REPORT RESUMES

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PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCES, A HANDBOOK FOR PROJECT TEACHING. A MANUAL FOR USE WITH "A FIRST LOOK AT DISTRIBUTION," WASHINGTON STATE DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION COURSE OUTLINE.

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WASHINGTON STATE BOARD FOR VOCAT. EDUC., OLYMPIA

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DESCRIPTORS- *DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION, *PROJECT TRAINING, *PROGRAM GUIDES, *TEACHING METHODS, *TEACHING TECHNIQUES, INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS, HIGH SCHOOLS, COMMUNITY RESOURCES,

THE PURPOSE OF THE HANDBOOK IS TO ASSIST THE TEACHER IN DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING STUDENT INTEREST AT A HIGH LEVEL BY THE USE OF REALISTIC, PRACTICAL, AND INTERESTING ACTIVITIES IN THE PROJECT TRAINING METHOD IN DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION COURSES. THE MANUAL WAS DEVELOPED FROM RECOMMENDATIONS OF A SPECIAL RESEARCH COMMITTEE OF DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION TEACHERS UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A RESEARCH SPECIALIST, TO BE USED WITH "A FIRST LOOK AT DISTRIBUTION" (VT 001 273). SOME WAYS TO SUSTAIN STUDENT INTEREST ARE--(1) MAINTAIN A STUDENT-CENTERED CLASSROOM, (2) RELATE CONTENT TO FUTURE NEEDS AND INTERESTS, (3) EVALUATE INDIVIDUAL LEARNING AT EVERY STEP, (4) USE REAL MATERIALS AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE, AND (5) PROVIDE ADEQUATE TIME FOR INDEPENDENT ACTIVITIES AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT PROCESSES ON AN INDIVIDUAL BASIS. THE ACTUAL PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCES OR PROJECTS ARE CLASSIFIED UNDER DIRECTED OBSERVATION, ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION, DISCUSSION, AND PRACTICE. SPECIFIC PROCEDURES ARE GIVEN FOR USING (1) THE INDIVIDUALIZED STUDY METHOD, (2) MULTIPLE PROJECT SCHEDULING, (3) COMMUNITY RESOURCES, (4) FIELD TRIPS, (5) RESOURCE SPEAKERS, (6) THE CASE STUDY METHOD, (7) THE LISTENING TEAM TECHNIQUE, (8) BRAINSTORMING, (9) RESEARCH PROJECTS AND REPORTING, (10) ROLE PLAYING, (11) BUSINESS GAMES, (12) THE CONFERENCE METHOD, AND (13) VISUAL AIDS. A BIBLIOGRAPHY IS INCLUDED. (MM)

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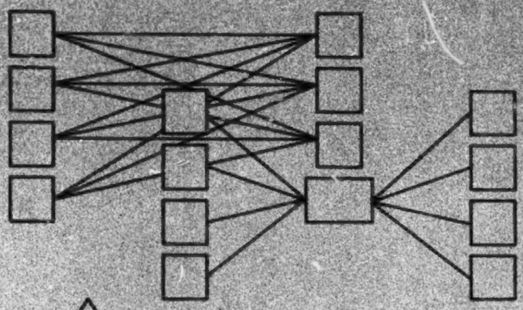

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PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCES

VT004599

A HANDBOOK FOR PROJECT TEACHING

COMMENDATION

The publication of this booklet, Participation Experiences, A Handbook for Project Teaching, was made possible only through the assistance of numerous professional agencies, groups and individuals active in the field of Distributive Education.

An agency that must be singled out for special commendation is the Washington State Research Coordinating Unit. Employing a research coordinator for vocational education, the Research Coordinating Unit was able to provide essential guidance and financial assistance required for the completion of this work.

K. Otto Logan

K. Otto Logan, State Director
Distributive Education

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCES

A HANDBOOK FOR
PROJECT TEACHING

A Manual For Use With.....
A FIRST LOOK AT DISTRIBUTION
Washington State Distributive
Education Course Outline

Prepared by
State of Washington
Division of Vocational Education
Distributive Education
K. Otto Logan, Director

July 1967

RESEARCH COORDINATOR AND EDITOR
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DEC 20 1967

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PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCES A Handbook for Project Teaching

State of Washington, Division of Vocational Education, 1967

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Level of Group State of Washington Distributive Education Coordinators
Method of Design, Testing, and Trial
Designed by subject matter specialists
(Presently being used in 18 schools)

(3) Utilization of Material:
Appropriate School Setting High School, area vocational, Community College
Type of Program Distributive Education - Basic
Occupational Focus First exposure to Distributive Occupations
Geographic Adaptability none
Uses of Material To aid in encouraging student participation activities.
Users of Material Teachers (high school and Community College).

(4) Requirements for Using Material:
Teacher Competency Any teacher will find this helpful in all fields.
Student Selection Criteria
EMPLOYMENT GOALS = Gainful Employment in Distribution
Time Allotment

Supplemental Media --
Necessary ___ } (Check Which)
Desirable x }

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"Projects for Preparatory Programs"
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(address) Division of Vocational Education State of Washington
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WE BELIEVE THAT SCHOOLS SHOULD RECOGNIZE AND DEVELOP THE CAPACITIES OF EVERY CHILD.

FOREWORD

To be successful with the "participating experience" (or project) technique, a teacher should be particularly aware of certain basic elements of education. When we recognize that initial enrollment in an elective course is indicative of average or better motivation, interest may be developed and maintained at a high level by use of realistic, practical, and interesting activities. The teacher needs to be sensitive to the natural interests of the student. Students may have had some experience in a particular area, or perhaps an interest has developed that is related to the work or activities of the parents. A capable teacher is adept at guiding and directing the interests of his students and channeling activities in the direction of the students' goals.

Another basic element of education is that students must be able to succeed in order to perform a series of learning activities that will lead to ultimate success and fulfillment of goals. Classroom projects (or participating experiences) should be presented in order of difficulty from the easiest to the most difficult. It is extremely important that the student understand the relationships of what he is doing as applied to his present and future life in the world of work. The expert teacher will make every effort to draw out the important concepts, and to use the most logical activity techniques for each unit of instruction as they apply to each individual. Classroom instruction, therefore, must include learning activities to supplement on-the-job training as well as provide a limited preview of experiences to be practiced and developed in the absence of supervised work-training possibilities.

It is the purpose of this publication to provide ideas and make suggestions that will help you to develop your student so that he will perceive relationships and apply facts and information to the solution of a problem, and create new ideas or invent new systems as a result of his learning. The student should be encouraged to do these things by himself---with appropriate help and guidance from the teacher.

K. Otto Logan, Director
Distributive Education
Washington State

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We should cultivate the uniqueness of each citizen.

I PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCES

Active participation by the student is necessary for effective learning in occupational preparation. This preparation should include a logical balance between book learning and action-oriented projects.

It is suggested that each participating experience involve one or more of the following categories or classifications of projects which the student is expected to complete during a scheduled period of time.

Classification of Projects

A. **Directed Observation**

1. Viewing selected films and televised programs
2. Street or floor counts
3. Trade exhibits and museum visits
4. "Over-the-shoulder" observations of personnel in distributive occupations in the employment situation.
5. Trips with management representatives to resources (preferably those in close proximity).
6. Customer calls with sales representatives or with delivery services.
7. Attendance at shows and sales rallies.
8. Attendance at Distributive Education Clubs of America district or State conferences and competitions.

For example, one project for a student with a career objective in general merchandising might be to observe the coordination of sales promotion activities in relation to newspaper advertisements, interior and window display, stock arrangement and quantity, personal selling staff, and store traffic. A student planning a career in home furnishings might be assigned to a project requiring observation of a shop specializing in reupholstering and furniture refinishing in order to gain an understanding of woods and fabrics.

IF YOU'RE
PLANNING
FOR SUCCESS

B. Analysis and Evaluation

(of appropriate situations and materials)

1. Case studies
2. Creative marketing problems
3. Interviews and surveys
4. Trade journal reading
5. Listening to tapes and records
6. Comparing profit and loss statements
7. Business games

For example, a student whose occupational objective is a basic job in a gasoline service station might conduct a survey of selling efforts in relation to products maintained on the shelves of station offices. The project objective could be to develop the ability to recognize slow turn-over items, or to develop awareness of suggestions that close the gap between car service and product availability.

C. Discussion - small group projects

1. Panel presentations and discussions
2. Buzz sessions
3. Committee work
4. Conference discussions
5. Brainstorming

A group of students preparing for the grocery field might undertake a project related to self-selection, present their findings in oral reports, and lead a group discussion focusing on management decisions about customer traffic patterns, shopping convenience, automation, pilferage, and suggestion sales. Students lacking facility in communication might be assigned projects utilizing the buzz-session technique to discuss such topics as characteristics of the trade area, customer differences, product values in relation to the standard of living, wage payment plans, uses of credit, and job ethics.

D. **Practice**

1. Review of arithmetical processes
2. Role-playing job incidents with playback by a recording device
3. Completing programmed materials developed in cooperation with trade associations or training departments of distributive organizations
4. Role-playing decision-making by means of business games
5. Participating in employment interviews
6. Independent study in a product area

A student with limited social skills might be given a project involving interviews with members of the advisory committee and thus develop ease in adapting to others.

In the typical distributive business work situation, a person is exposed to a multitude of tasks and assignments that are actually "the job." Everyone, from the newest employee to the general manager, has to work with various forms, perform certain tasks, and work in special areas that demand at least some familiarity with the occupational elements if he is to do the job effectively. It is the purpose of this project manual to encourage and help you, the teacher, to simulate, to some degree, the situation that the worker will encounter when he completes his preparatory stage and enters the world of work.

These practices are suggested as some of the ways to sustain interest and continuity.

1. Maintain a student-centered classroom; often the teacher need be only a resource person.
2. Always relate content and materials to future needs and interests.
3. Evaluate individual learning at every step, and take advantage of every opportunity to point out successful performance of the class and the individual.
4. Use realia--real articles such as newspaper columns, application blanks, letters, etc.---as much as possible.
5. Provide adequate time for independent activities and skill development processes on an individual basis. This may be the most important part of the teaching.

AIDS to LEARNING

LEARNING THROUGH WORDS

- Books
- Magazines
- Newspapers
- Lectures
- Discussions
- Debates
- Letters
- Essays
- Reports

LEARNING THROUGH AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

- Maps
- Charts
- Graphs
- Objects
- Specimens
- Models
- Pictures
- Slides
- Filmstrips
- Motion Pictures
- Radio
- Recordings
- Television
- Overhead Transparencies

LEARNING THROUGH CONSTRUCTION ACTIVITIES

- Drawing
- Collecting
- Modeling
- Painting
- Dramatizing
- Constructing
- Displaying

LEARNING THROUGH COMMUNITY EXPERIENCE

- Resource visitors
- Interviews
- Field Trips
- Surveys
- Extended Field Studies
- Service Projects
- Work Experiences

LEARNING THROUGH RESEARCH AND PRESENTATION

- Interviews
- Civic Involvement
- Methods of Presentation - Verbal
- Booklets
- Bulletin Boards
- Demonstrations
- Recordings
- Models
- Visual Aids

A comparison of new projects-teaching techniques with traditional teaching methods.

OLD	NEW
Learning dictated, prescribed, and controlled by text and teacher	Learning through experiences involving planning, self-direction, discovery, exploration, and thinking.
Acquisition of skills and abilities	Acquisition of skills and abilities as a result of a need or a lack.
Learning through studying about life.	Learning through active participation in group and family living.
Things to be learned selected according to a sequence in subject.	Things to be learned selected according to maturation of student.
Courses tend to be worked out in advance	Planned in advance but with much opportunity for pupil participation and direction
Only intellectual materials of highly academic styles utilized.	All types of experiences utilized: visual aids, radio, and community resources.
Distinction between curricular and extra-curricular	All experience part of the school curriculum

Projects for use in P.E.P.* programs will fall into several classifications. Among them are individual projects which are carried out or performed by a single person. This is a condition under which the individual will have sole responsibility for the quality and character of all phases of the work.

Small group projects are those participated in by several students. Such a project may take the form of a joint research project where each person is responsible for an isolated segment of the project and then collaborates in putting the total project in final form. This type of project offers many opportunities for realizing the broader objectives of DE not inherent in an individual project. Teamwork, leadership, and other aspects of human relations are some of the skills learned in this manner. Classes may be so divided that certain sections of the class can be working on one project while other groups are involved in others.

Full class projects are excellent for learning organizational procedures, etc., and they can be the basis for some very ambitious undertakings.

The assignment of individual and group projects has been approached in different ways by different teachers. This particular aspect of project training seems to be a dilemma all over the coutry as there has not, as yet, appeared any system that has earned national acceptance.

The practice of assigning the same project to all students is the oldest of these methods. This, of course, is the course-oriented approach rather than the student- or individual-oriented method. This practice may still have some merit, particularly in the early stages of the program, and can be used until individual differences of the students can be recognized and the course adjusted to fit student needs. But this method can hardly be considered best in this day and age when most educators are seeking the attainment of individual growth and learning objectives.

During the research for participation experiences suitable for DE, it became evident that the assignment of single compulsory projects to all students had serious limitations. Constant difficulties were encountered by instructors in their attempts to keep all the students working at the same pace. This led to a search for some means of adjusting the work to the student instead of adjusting the student to the work.

---

*PARTICIPATION EXPERIENCE PROJECTS

In solving the problem of what to do with students in the same class with a variety of capabilities and goals,a group of similar projects may be selected, from which the student collaborates with the teacher in selecting the one best suited to his ability, objectives, and interests. All in this group of projects should contain certain elements that are common to the objectives of the program.

The Free Choice of Projects method allows for an almost unlimited choice in what the student may wish to accomplish. This method demands a great deal of care on the part of the instructor, and original plans should be carefully supervised so that the project may be truly meaningful according to the criteria of DE and vocational education.

While it is true that we have discouraged students and destroyed their interest with some of our archaic teaching methods, this new approach of permissiveness has problems all its own and can possibly result in a decline of interest because of lack of definiteness and challenging requirements. The majority of students come to class to learn, and they do not like to waste time. Free choice of projects may sound desirable, but some teachers have found weaknesses in this type of project selection.

The real solution to the problem of project involvement is to stimulate the desired motivation in the students. If this can be accomplished, most projects will be found to be rich in opportunities relating to a vocation or future career in distribution.

INDIVIDUALIZED STUDY METHOD

Individualized programming of learning experiences is a method by means of which the learner is encouraged and assisted in organizing his work and activities so that he will profit in direct proportion to his individual effort. The individual will relate his instruction to his own problems. The instructor should be broadly competent in distributive occupations and should devote time, as needed, to each student.

Two situations can result in decreased efficiency in an individualized class. As the size of the group increases, the instructor-time available to each student decreases. The other factor for consideration is that effective utilization of individual instruction decreases with an increase in the number of different occupational goals chosen by the class members.

The study pursued in a project situation does a good job of relating the individual to his job. Each person proceeds at his own rate of learning, and retention is said to be higher than in most other methods. Individuals should pursue their separate paths only so long as their interests and needs differ; and they should be grouped for class information and instruction on elements common to all distributive occupations represented in the class.

A good project teacher must possess a special attitude in order to succeed. This type of work requires an accomplished instructor with broad occupational experience. He must make use of careful coordination processes and use diligence in the preparation of materials. He is charged with the responsibility of allowing the individual to proceed at his own rate of learning.

To quote Dr. Frank Crane, "Teaching is lighting a lamp, not filling a bucket."

*HOW TO PLAN A PROJECT--(An example from the area of selling)

The following traces the thinking of the coordinator and the student as they work together to develop a plan for a Participation Experience Project.

1. The unit for consideration is SELLING.
2. We will be concerned specifically with DIRECT SELLING.
3. Consider the individual maturity and capability of the student.
4. The experience is related to a specific pathway to a specific goal. (Not necessarily a permanent commitment.)

STEP 1:

The coordinator and the student discuss and decide what the student should learn in his study of Direct Selling. The broad objectives are then stated specifically.

The Student Should Learn:

1. The approach
2. The presentation
3. The close
4. Prospecting:
    a. How
    b. When
    c. Where
5. Judgment skills in dealing with different types of customers:
    a. Appraising types of customers
    b. Methods of dealing with different types of customers
6. Fundamentals of research for improvement:
    a. Record keeping

STEP 2:

The coordinator and the student(s) work together to plan participation activities in which the student(s) will find, observe, perform with, or otherwise experience the activity and informational exposure needed to attain the predetermined objective.

Student Learning Activities And Experiences:

1. Develop approach
2. Develop presentation
3. Develop close
4. Selection of prospecting area
5. Selection of prospecting time
6. Actual sales experience of one to three hours door-to-door
7. Keep records of number of calls, sales, multiple sales, time, area
8. Reading assignments in a text such as Duval's SALESMANSHIP FUNDAMENTALS
9. Revamp prospecting, approach, presentation, close
10. Repeat sales experience and keep records
11. Write interpretations and conclusions

STEP 3:

The coordinator provides specific questions, tests, or other methods to guide student interpretations and conclusions. This step can be left entirely to the students to produce.

Student Interpretations And Conclusions:
What have you learned?
What are your conclusions?

STEP 4:
The coordinator analyzes and lists specific learning outcomes (interpretations and conclusions) the student should have assimilated.

Desired Learning Outcomes as Related to Objective:

Skills:
Door-to-door selling: How to approach, present, and close a sale
Selection of favorable prospecting areas and times
How to plan a sales presentation
How to appraise and adjust to different types of customers
Research: How to maintain records of pertinent factors

Information:
Study direct selling
Basic information for research
Merchandise information sources and methods

Concepts and Philosophies:
Value of planning
Value of merchandise information
Value of records to indicate areas of possible improvement
Law of averages
Costs/earnings
Time in relation to earnings

Attitudes and Feelings:
Direct selling as an occupation
Customer relations
Value of positive thinking

*Adapted from curriculum development paper, 1966. Oregon State Department of Education.

2 MULTIPLE PROJECT SCHEDULING

There are many occasions when a variety of projects may be proceeding simultaneously in a class.* Sometimes it is difficult to permit all members of a group to carry on studies of their choice.

Some teachers shrink from getting involved in such a variety of enterprises. They believe it would be difficult for a teacher to inform himself along several lines well enough to help pupils locate and interpret materials. They also fear that it may be difficult to maintain group unity if all are not pursuing one "unit of work." They foresee the problem of maintaining communication between small groups and large groups. With regard to these points, it may be said that it is no more difficult for a teacher to keep up with varied topics than to keep a minority of unwilling group members wholeheartedly pursuing a purpose settled on by a majority but not of interest to certain individuals. Also it may be said that there are ways of promoting group unity equally as good as the unit of work; for example, common experiences such as trips, parties, plays, service projects, etc.

It is not necessary that every experience of a small group be carried to the large group in the form of a report. If a small group has learned things of value from a project, the project is justified even if findings are not formally shared. On the other hand, the rest of the group may become so interested in what various members are learning that they will want to hear from them, just as members of a small group may become so excited about their adventures that they will seek an opportunity to share with others.

a workable plan

1. Plan around real responsibilities with concrete content. Let students help with agenda setting.
2. Let students do--formulate, suggest, record, try out their ideas. Give support to a group but do not overdirect it.
3. Widen horizons and build background experiences to improve quality of participation.
4. Clear the way with other adults for pupil planning.
5. Create an accepting and supporting atmosphere.
6. Make sure that all students understand clearly the problem under consideration.
7. Help the group divide the discussion into parts.
8. Be flexible in discussion tracts.
9. See to it that ideas of all group members get a fair hearing.
10. Distinguish between a suggestion and a group discussion.

Planning–Scheduling–Controlling

The most effective management tool yet conceived for planning and evaluating progress in the operation of a complex Distributive Education program is the concept of PERT. This tool was pioneered by the Navy and is called Program Evaluation and Review Technique. There are more than a hundred variations of this method at the present time, and it is sometimes referred to as Critical Path Diagramming.

The idea and advantages of this method of program planning involve identifying the major tasks to be performed, deciding the rough order in which they must be performed, and--by a graphical model--completing the scheduling and ultimately controlling the individual elements. The activities necessary to accomplish a program are usually easy to identify. Discovering how they interrelate and constrain each other is not so easy. This method will allow us to construct a complete program in model form.

One of the advantages to be gained is the clear picture obtained of the total program and the constraints and interrelationships among the various project activities. Another is that the planning and scheduling aspects of the program are separated, allowing for more effective treatment of each. This method also forces one to think in a logical and disciplined way about the many tasks to be performed during the year, their resource requirements, and timing interrelationships. Once into such an analysis, it can quickly be seen when some arbitrarily imposed activity or date is not feasible, and when the work scope or resources must be adjusted. The fact that this amount of planning has been done will help assure program success. Finally, a network prepared for the program encompassing the entire school year is an invaluable tool in fighting unreasonable demands on the teacher's time by "higher" management.

Although these concepts can be expressed in mathematical terms, such an approach is not necessary for understanding it in its simplified form as applied to the school year. We will present here a phenomenological approach that should make clear the basic ideas and, at the same time, allow instructors to try the method without the burden of detailed pre-study.

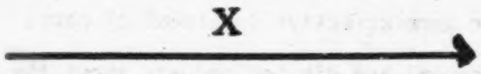
the system

First, we must--as in most planning--prepare a list of all jobs which must be accomplished to complete the project. In jargon, these are called "activities."

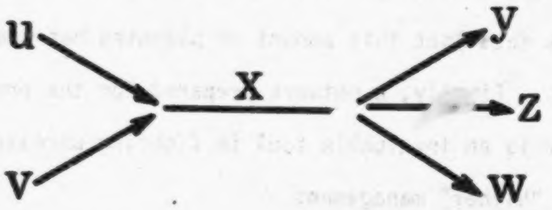
For each we consider three questions:
(1) What immediately precedes the activity?
(2) What immediately follows it?
(3) What can be done concurrently with it?

It is usually best to prepare a list of answers to the first and second, and jot down for future reference any pertinent thoughts on the third.

Armed with this list, we move to the heart of the method and its first unique feature: arrow diagramming, or network preparation. The basic idea is to select an activity, call it X, and represent it by an arrow:



The length of the arrow has no significance. Next, we attach to the head of this arrow those activities, say Y, Z, and W, which immediately follow it, and attach to the tail all those activities, say U and V, which immediately precede it:

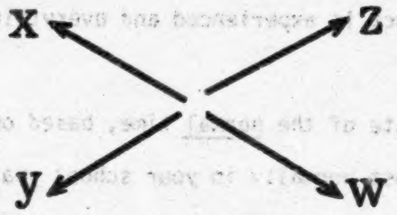


The points at which two or more arrows interconnect are called nodes and represent events or milestones in the program. To complete the network, we continue connecting arrows until all activities in the project are included.

A convenient way to start the network is to pick an activity that has no predecessor, then continue using its successors until a job is reached which has no successor. Repeat this process until all activities are charted. The network begins in a single node and ends in a single node. (Figure #1)

During network preparation, several things invariably occur. Happily we discover that some activities have been overlooked and that some others should be broken into several events. Some jobs that seemed unrelated actually have a crucial interdependence, or vice versa. Once the network is drawn, we can determine at a glance the interrelationships between any event and the others.

In order to accommodate more complex task relationship, however, further refinements are necessary. For example, consider this quite common form:



Here, jobs leaving the node must ALL have the same predecessors, and those entering the node must have the same followers. These requirements can be generalized as follows:

(1) All activities entering a node must have identical successors.

(2) All jobs leaving a node must have identical predecessors.

(3) A node must describe the complete relationships between entering and leaving activities.

We have now considered the planning phase of your school program.

The simplest approach to the scheduling phase is to make a single best time "guesstimate" for each activity planned and put each of these down against the corresponding arrow. Then individual path durations can be computed, and the sequence of activities can be identified in terms of time. It will probably be necessary to re-draw your network several times, depending on its complexity. You can refine the looks later, but for now it would be wise to think big and work big. The use of a three- or four-foot section of butcher paper is expedient.

The final scheduling step is the addition of the three-way time estimate. While introducing a complicating feature, this does give recognition to the realities of life which cause difficulties in most planning efforts for future events. The time estimates are to be done in terms of: optimistic, most likely, and pessimistic.

Optimistic--an estimate of the minimum time an activity or project will take, only if unusual good luck is experienced and everything goes right the first time on a greased skid.

Most likely--your estimate of the normal time, based on past experience and what would and does happen most normally in your school year.

Pessimistic--an estimate of the maximum time an activity will take if unusually bad luck is experienced. It should reflect the possibility of failure and a fresh start, band practice, and fire drills.

We can now calculate the mean activity time. The averaging formula by which the three time estimates are reduced to a single expected time (t_e) is subject to some question, but it has been widely used and seems appropriate enough in view of the lack of precision possible in our estimating. (Figure #2) Keep asking yourself three questions about each activity:

(1) Is this a good time estimate?

(2) Must every bit of this activity take place before starting the next job?

(3) Is there another approach to the sequence that is quicker and easier?

New words and new meanings for existing words used in this paper include:

Event: The major milestones of progress or accomplishment in a program. An event must be a milestone which is clearly definable and which is reached and passed in an instant of time.

Network: A chart which gives pictorial representation of chronological sequence and interrelationships of events.

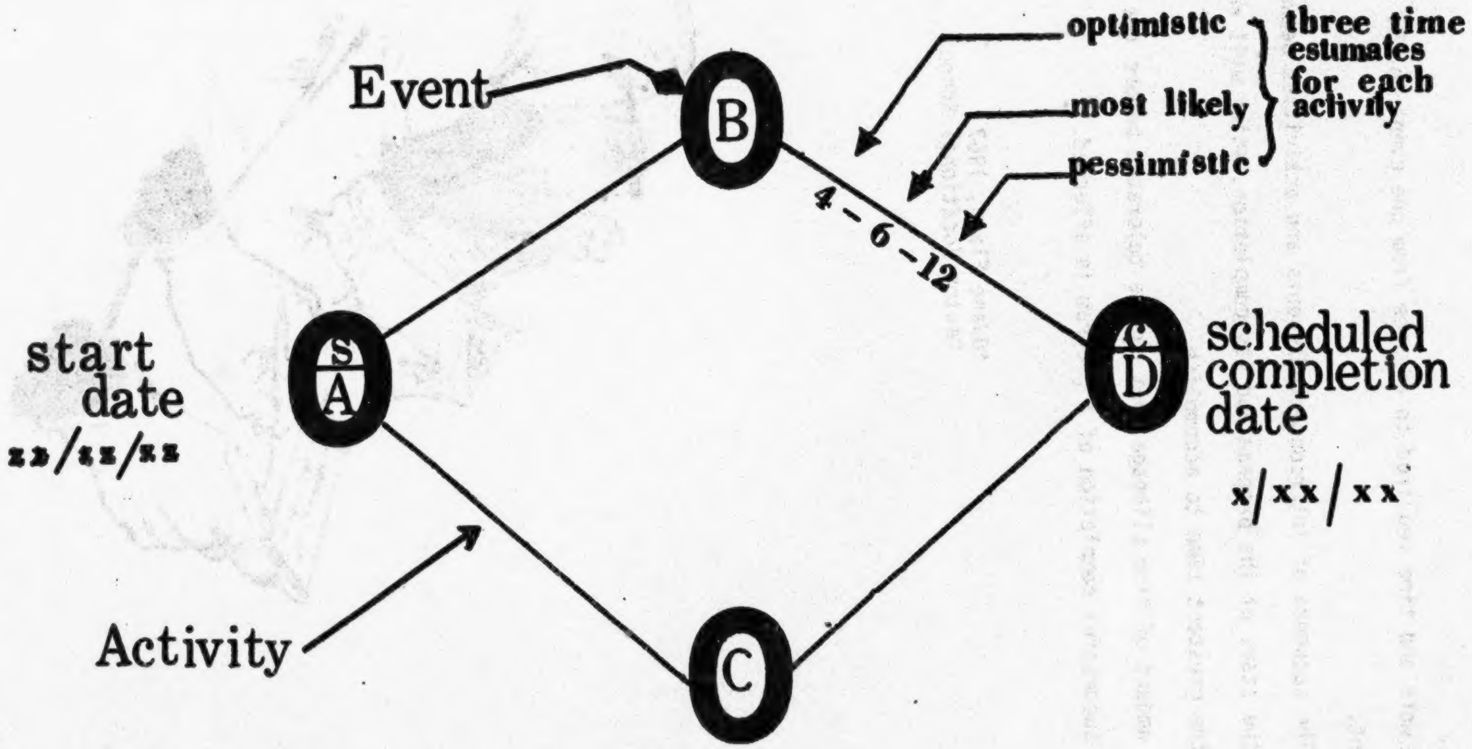
Activity: The work and time required to advance from one event to the next event.

Critical Path: The sequence of interconnected events and activities between the start of the program and its completion, which will require the greatest time to accomplish.

Slack Time: The amount of time slippage that can be tolerated before the overall successful completion of a program is affected.

*Duane Flagg, 1967
Renton Vocational School

NETWORK COMPONENTS


Event
optimistic
most likely
pessimistic
three time estimates for each activity
B
4 – 6 – 12
start date
xx/xx/xx
S
A
C
D
scheduled completion date
x/xx/xx
Activity
C

CALCULATION OF MEAN ACTIVITY TIME

$a =$ OPTIMISTIC

$m =$ MOST LIKELY

$b =$ PESSIMISTIC

$$t_e = \frac{a + 4m + b}{6}$$

FIGURE NO. 2

PARTICIPATING EXPERIENCES PROJECTS PLAN

Student:______________________________ School:________________

School Year: 19__ 19__ Semester:________________

The above-named student has chosen to train for a career in the field of_______

______________________________________.

This project plan briefly describes the occupational participating activities, group and individual, necessary for preparation toward employment in the occupation of______________________________________.

The activities outlined below are to be agreed upon by the student and teacher-coordinator as achievement levels necessary to the acquisition of his (her) occupational goal.

PROJECT SCHEDULE

Entry Date	Activity	Goal	Individual	Group	Completion Date	Due Date

______________________________ ______________________________
(Teacher-Coordinator) (Student)

SUGGESTED CHECK LIST FOR DISTRIBUTIVE PREPARATORY PROJECTS

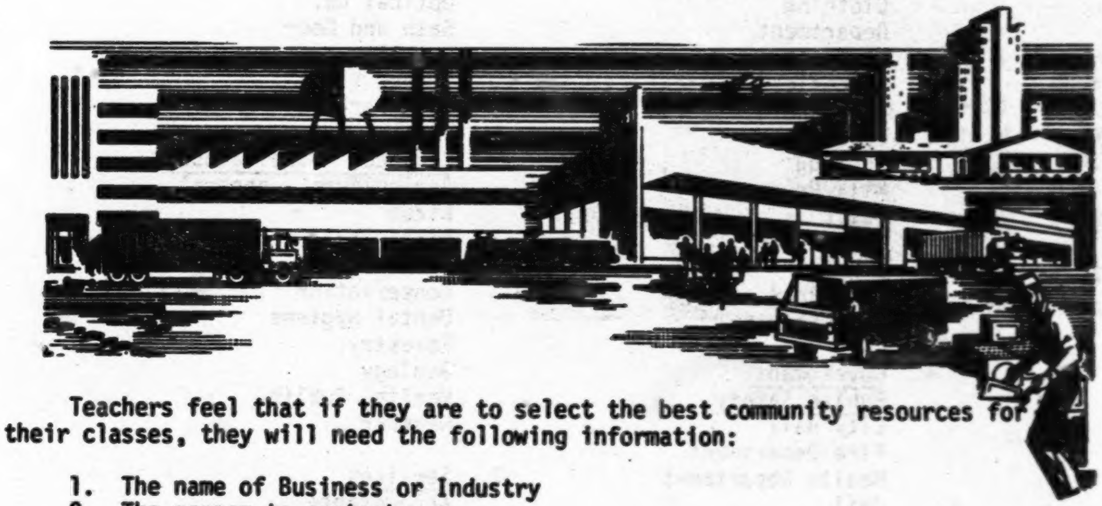
	Rate 1 lowest, 5 highest				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Does it allow for student planning?					
2. Will the project stimulate thinking and creativity?					
3. Is project based on student interest?					
4. Is it suited to grade and age level?					
5. Does it serve several objectives of DE?					
6. Is it suited to time limitations?					
7. Is timing right on project?					
8. Is it within the ability of the student?					
9. Will it challenge the student effort?					
10. Does it involve some type of work experience (real or simulated)?					
11. Is it well designed?					
12. Will it introduce new experiences?					

(It is not expected that all satisfactory projects will rate equally high.)

Technique	Topic or Week																	
Field Interview																		
Field Trip																		
Resource Visitor																		
Case Problem																		
Role Playing																		
Conference																		
Buzz Session																		
Brainstorming																		
Demonstration																		
Films-Slides																		
Tape Recording																		
Discussion																		
Debate																		
Panel																		
Lecture																		

Technique	Topic or Week																	
Job Performance																		
Simulation Games																		
Practice and Drill																		
Bulletin Board																		
Charts, Maps or Posters																		
Transparencies																		
Themes, Essays																		
Trade Publications																		
Newspaper Activities																		
Resource File Project																		
Occupational Research																		
Student Tests																		
Performance Test																		
Contest																		
Judging Others																		

3 DEVELOPING COMMUNITY RESOURCES



Teachers feel that if they are to select the best community resources for their classes, they will need the following information:

1. The name of Business or Industry
2. The person to contact
3. Telephone number and address
4. Best time for the contacts. Season - Time of Day - Days of the Week
5. How much advance notice should be given?
6. The maximum number of pupils to be accommodated.
7. Grades in school for which the visit is best suited.
8. Short statement of what the business or industry does.
9. Names of persons within the business or industry willing to talk about their particular occupation.

USE THIS LIST OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES TO ADVANTAGE IN YOUR PROJECT DEVELOPMENT*

A. Business and Opportunity

1. Agriculture
   - Dairy Farm
   - Poultry Farm
   - Mushroom Farm
   - Nurseries
   - Olympia Greenhouses
   - Oyster Beds
   - Washington Co-op
2. Communication
   - Newspaper
   - Post Office
   - Radio Stations
   - Telephone Office
   - Telegraph Office
3. Distributing Stores
   - Clothing
   - Department
   - Florists
   - Groceries
   - Hardware
   - Jewelry
   - Logging
   - Milk Producers
   - Music
   - Pharmacies
   - Garages
   - Insurance
   - Wholesalers
4. Government
   - Public Safety
   - City Hall
   - Fire Department
   - Health Department
   - Jail
   - Juvenile Office
   - Police Department
   - Police Court
   - Sheriff's Office
   - State Patrol
   - Superior Court
   - Water Department
   - Weather Station
   - County Offices
   - State Highway Department
   - Department of Public Assistance
   - Libraries
   - Conservation, Forestry & Geology
5. Manufacturing
   - Bakery
   - Boat Building
   - Brewing Company
   - Cabinet Making
   - Can Manufacturing
   - Creamery
   - Foundry
   - Glass Co.
   - Metal Crafts
   - Optical Co.
   - Sash and Door
   - Sawmill
   - Veneer Plant
   - Meat Packers
6. Science, Miscellaneous
   - Agriculture - general
   - Birds
   - Biological Laboratories
   - Chemical Lab
   - Conservation
   - Dental Hygiene
   - Forestry
   - Geology
   - Health, Public
   - Weather
7. Services
   - Accountants
   - Architect
   - Auto Repair
   - Barber
   - Beautician
   - Cleaning, Pressing
   - Dentist
   - Dental Lab
   - Electrical-Electronics
   - Hotels & Restaurants

*This list was developed for Olympia.
(Every other community will have unique resources available to them.)

7. Services, Cont.
   - Hospitals - Clinics
   - Nursing Homes
   - Landscape Gardening
   - Laundry
   - Lawyer
   - Mortuary
   - Medical
   - Stockbrokers
   - Dun & Bradstreet
   - Medical Lab
   - Nursing
   - Optometrists
   - Photographers
   - Plumbers
   - Refrigeration
   - Service Stations
   - Shoe Repair
   - Upholsterers
   - Veterinary Hospitals
   - Welders

8. Trades
   - Auto Mechanic
   - Bricklaying
   - Butcher
   - Carpenter
   - Machinist
   - Office Machine Mechanic
   - Painter
   - Plasterer
   - Plumber
   - Printer
   - Sign Painter

9. Transportation
   - Airplane
   - Boats
   - Bus
   - Express Office
   - Railroad
   - Trucking

10. Associations
   - AMA
   - AD Club
   - SME
   - American Petroleum Inst.
   - ABI
   - AWI
   - Washington Groc. Assn.
   - Restaurant Assn., etc.

11. Educational Institutions
   - Business Colleges
   - Vocational Schools
   - Universities
   - Specialized Training Inst.
   - Colleges

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

B. Arts - Crafts - Hobbies

1. Art Collections
2. Antique Collections
3. Astonomy, Amateur
4. Ceramics
5. China Collections
6. Coin Collections
7. Costume Collections
8. Doll Collections
9. Glass Collections
10. Historical Picture Collections
11. Leathertooling
12. Metal work
13. Old Book Collections
14. Photography, Amateur
15. Stamp Collections
16. Stones, Cutting & Polishing
17. Stones, Collections
18. Tincraft
19. Weaving
20. Woodcarving

COMMUNITY RESOURCE
REFERENCE CARD

Resource__________ **Address**__________

Name of contact__________ **Title**__________

Nature of business__________

Time__________ **Phone Number**__________

Notice required__________

Specific knwoledge__________

FOR USE IN UNIT NUMBER __________

IF FOR FIELD TRIP:

Number of students__________ **Length of tour**__________

Number of adults to accompany students__________

REMARKS:__________

Note to the Teacher:

Make up a quantity of these - one for every community resource available. Cross-file them and use for field trips, speakers, etc. as they are indicated by need in each unit.

4 FIELD TRIPS

Recommended Procedures for Field Trips

A field trip should be part of a Unit of Study. It is not an outing or a reward. The visitation may be used when it helps that unit in the course of study. Preparation for each specific trip should begin well in advance.

THE STUDENT

Each student should understand the definite purpose for the visitation. Specific objectives should be outlined and understood. Each person should understand how the field trip fits in as part of the unit, and specifically as it applies to his individual learning program.

Particular attention should be given to vocabulary peculiar to the industry or business that is to be visited. Pupils should have specific activities or processes in mind to be viewed.* (Use Listening Team Technique covered in later section.)

Students should prepare an outline of the trip, when possible; and the order of visitation of machines, activities, or processes should be listed in order of viewing. This is sometimes referred to as "sample guide."

THE HOME

A mimeographed sheet may be sent home explaining all aspects of the trip, as well as requesting permission for the student's participation. If special clothing or equipment will be needed, this information should be included.

OTHER TEACHERS

If the trip interferes with other classes or subjects, rearrangement of schedules must be made with sufficient notice to allow other teachers ample time to make adjustments. There must be cooperation with the principal and other teachers in this respect.

Irrespective of guide service, teacher and/or trip supervisors should be thoroughly familiar with the activity so that they can call pupils' attention to specific aspects of the industry and can answer questions pertaining to such activity.

"Excursion etiquette" should be developed. The community is quite apt to evaluate the trip in the light of student conduct. Success and feasibility of future trips may depend greatly on this factor.

TRANSPORTATION

Application for bus transportation must be made to the principal and cleared through the Superintendent's Office. Be sure that ample time is allowed in order that the request may be honored without confusion (at least two weeks). If private cars are to be used, it is well to know something about the drivers. The time of departure and return should be established in advance.

If the return to the school is after school hours, arrangements for the student to get home safely must be considered.

AFTER VISITATION

Appreciation should be shown the business or industry visited by some expression from the students, either oral or written. The writing of letters to obtain permission to visit and the writing of letters of thanks are valuable learning experiences. After the visitation, the regular technique of re-teaching, summarizing, and testing should follow.

Teacher Preparation
CHECKLIST

If any field trip is to be successful, it is vitally important that thorough preparation be made well in advance of each specific trip.

- ☐ Understand and outline objectives. These will vary with different grades.
- ☐ Consult bibliographies of audio-visual materials, books, etc.
- ☐ Excursions by teachers to become acquainted with resources.
- ☐ Consult file cards and check information from previous trips.
- ☐ Arrange with principal for time schedule for trip to avoid conflicts.
- ☐ Request parent permission for child participation. A mimeographed sheet explaining purpose and other aspects will help.
- ☐ Safety precautions should be known and children oriented.
- ☐ Stress the necessity of proper conduct on the trip; i.e., "Excursion Etiquette."
- ☐ Need for special equipment and/or clothing should be known; i.e., a trip to a farm or the beach would require special attire; and containers for specimens, materials, etc., collected on trip are also valuable.
- ☐ Secure permission and make time and other necessary arrangements with owners or specified representatives of place to be visited.
- ☐ Teacher should be thoroughly familiar with route, bus schedule (if used), features enroute to destination, and time needed to cover proposed journey.

5 RESOURCE SPEAKERS

I. Study unit before inviting speaker.

II. Make appointments early (at least two weeks).

III. Prepare students for Resource Visitor:

- A. Each student should know:
  1. Purpose of visit.
  2. What specific points to listen for.
  3. General information on topic.
  4. Vocabulary necessary to understand speaker.
- B. Speaker should know:
  1. Time and place expected to speak.
  2. Length of time allotted.
  3. Grade level.
  4. How much advance information students have had.
  5. Shall he be expected to answer questions?

IV. Collections and Exhibits.

- A. Preparation for exhibition
- B. Arrangements for delivering and returning.
- C. Length of time exhibit may be displayed.

V. Follow a formula in arranging for resource visitor to avoid confusion--use suggested procedure listed under "Speaker Should Know."

VI. Appreciation should be shown visitors by some expression from the students: oral and written.

SPEAKER SHOULD KNOW

Vocational orientation to distributive occupations demands a continuity between the business community and the learning student. Preparatory programs should draw heavily from as many available speakers as it is possible to work into the schedule. The programming of these people, however, should not be a casual, "Come on down, Bob, and speak to my class for a half hour or so." To be really effective, the speaker resource should be a part of a well-planned presentation schedule that includes pre-speaker student orientation and then review of the material covered shortly after the presentation has been made. The speaker should have available to him the following information:

***When**
What is the exact date?________________ What is the time?____________

Where
Where will the meeting be held?______________________________

What room______________________ size of room________________

Speaker's stand available?________________ Microphone available?______

Who
How many people will be present?________ Both male and female?________

What is the primary interest of the group?________________________

What are the secondary interests of the group?_____________________

What are their occupational interests?____________________________

What about the program
How long is he to speak?____________________________________

Will there be other speakers on the program?_______________________

Will there be short announcements?______________________________

Will there be interruptions of any kind?___________________________

Why
Why he was invited to speak__________________________________

What is the topic to be covered?_________________________________

*Adapted from "How to Make Better Speeches", Cities Service Oil Company.

6 CASE METHOD

The case method as an instructional device is gaining a great deal of acceptance in modern individualized instruction patterns. It is an adaptation of the problem method as employed in teaching. Discussion is centered upon actual or hypothetical situations, or cases which are advanced to instruct class members in the given subject.

It is quite effective when an actual procedure is needed to establish a point. It encourages independent and original thinking, and it is a valuable means to differentiate between theory and practice.

Case study classes require an occupationally competent leader who is skilled in leading discussion. Members of the case study group should be encouraged to write up actual incidents or difficulties as case problems for solution by the group. This will result in group acceptance or a recommendation of approved practice.

It is recommended that cases be used as supplements to other methods, and that the cases used are definitely problems or potential problems of the group participants. Enough cases should be admitted to enable the group to agree upon whatever principle or decision can be reached.

A FORMAT FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDY WITH CASES

I. What questions can I ask myself as I study a case?

Have I read this case carefully?

Have I missed any important details?

Have I injected any facts that are not actually stated in the case?

Am I accepting someone's opinions as facts?

Have I made any unwarranted inferences?

Am I rejecting "opinions" as of no value?

Do I feel that not enough facts are given? If so, am I remembering that in life situations, we are never given "all the facts", but we must make decisions nevertheless?

What inferences can I make to increase my understanding of this case?

How have things reached their present condition?

What is my estimate of the principal character (or characters) concerning such things as:

- Abilities
- Intelligence
- Social skills
- Life goal
- Level of aspiration
- Clear-cut image of self
- Similarity of personal values to group values
- Feeling of being accepted by group
- Security level
- Unconscious aggression
- Inner tension
- Anxiety level
- Frustration tolerance

Can I put myself in the place of each of the principal characters and see the situation as he sees it? Can I feel his motives, his emotions, his conflicts, his frustrations, his ideals?

How are social codes affecting behavior here?

Are there conflicting codes at work?

Is communication difficult between various group members?

Am I classifying someone arbitrarily, thus shutting off thinking about him or giving him characteristics he may not have?

Am I reacting emotionally (disgusted, angry, "in favor of") to some thing or person, thus blocking my understanding?

Am I assuming the situation was caused by just one thing?

Am I assuming there are only two sides to the problem?

Am I assuming that every statement is either true or false?

What should be done? What action, if any, would I recommend?

How should it be done?

Am I depending on "one solution" to solve everything?

How many alternate courses can I see?

Have I depended on people already in the case to solve the problem, or have I called in a "higher authority" to wave a magic wand?

Does the person (or persons) who is to apply the solving action have the necessary skill, knowledge, prestige, and freedom of movement to take this action?

What prediction can I make as to what will happen if my recommendation is adopted?

Will it solve the present problem?

Will it prevent problems like this from arising in the future?

Will it create other problems not now in existence?

II. What questions can I ask myself as I take part in the group discussions of a case?

Listening to the contributions of a member

Am I hearing his words correctly?

Is he dealing in facts or inferences?

Is he saying what he wants to say?

Is he holding things back because of fear of disapproval?

Is he expressing attitudes that he himself is not aware of?

Are prejudices or emotions producing blind spots in his thinking pattern?

Is his thinking distorted by stereotyping, by over-generalizing?

Is he using high level words which have no operational meaning?

Does he have one principle that solves everything?

Is he relying on authoritarian methods for solving problems?

How different is his slant from my own? Can I reconcile the points of view?

Is his approach to the case from a different level than my own?

Does it come from a different background of experience?

Watching the progress of the group

Is everyone in the group contributing to the discussion?

Are group members listening to each other?

Are they using each other's contributions in their own thinking?

Is the group progressing, day by day, in its ability to deal with these cases?

III. Have I changed as a result of this experience?

Do I find myself contributing ideas I had not thought of before?

Am I learning how to present my own point of view more successfully?

Does the group seem to be accepting more and more of my ideas?

Are they beginning to listen to me?

Do I find myself increasingly utilizing the contribution of others?

To what kinds of people in the group do I react positively--negatively? What does this mean about me?

Have I modified some of my views about the world as a result of this experience?

HOW TO PLAN and WRITE a CASE STUDY

Case problems or studies are brief descriptions of specific situations encountered in your work. These case problems are most useful in teaching and management relations because they offer a practical view of the subject. They also make familiar the methods, practices, and problems in various types of work. They promote independent and creative thinking. Case studies aid in the appreciation of conflicting interests at any one given time; they give practice in deciding a particular course of action to be taken and in defending a particular stand taken. They also stress the application of knowledge obtained in your work.

How To Approach A Case Situation

In working with case situations, follow as carefully as possible the information relating to the situation which has become the problem. In certain instances, you may feel that you have insufficient information, and therefore hesitate to write a case. However, the lack of all facts may challenge other members of the group to provide either the sources of information or to proceed in the solution of a problem with the limited amount of data available. This is not an unusual condition in problem-solving; many times complete information is not available. In this manner, perception and forward-thinking can and must be supplied by the problem solver and also will help you to analyze the roads other members take toward making decisions and solving problems.

When you have gathered the information and data available, analyze this material. Break it into organized parts, review it and attempt to establish relationships between various parts.

After you have analyzed the various relationships, search for decisions or actions that are demanded. As a rule, alternatives are present.

*Adapted from 1957 National Institute Seminar, June, 1958.

Next, determine the consequences that will result from taking this action. This requires judgment, background, and imagination as to what the future will bring, and a broad view of how various interacting forces will operate.

Finally, recommend the specific action that will bring about a solution to the problem or to the development of a problem tailored to the situation at hand. This is not to be written, but may be suggested by the case writer.

Observation Points

The use of cases helps not only the person gathering the case data, but those studying it, to develop skill in analyzing a situation. This is one of the most important items in problem solving or in analyzing future programs. When a problem is concisely stated, then the next step, leading to its solution, has been taken.

Keep in mind--in dealing with case problems--that the vital contribution is not the decision itself but the growth that will come with the reaching of the decision. The shrewdness of analysis, the ability to develop creativity, perspective, the understanding of the climate surrounding the situation in your work, will justify the time spent in developing the case approach.

Of course, all answers to a case problem are not final. The answer will always be based on particular conditions and circumstances, present in the short run.

Suggested Techniques for Writing Your Case

1. Organize your material. If you haven't already done so, write everything down. Prepare an outline of the case. Use this outline.
2. State the issue in writing. In the first paragraph, give a clue to the historical background of the problem or situation and what the impediments appear to be. In most cases, you may find that your writing can be speeded if you dictate the first draft. The use of topic sentences may aid you in spotting the planning of your case.

The following divisions are suggested:

1. Facts - The particular situation or condition or problem.
2. The Problem or the Situation - A brief, concise statement of the issue that is to be decided.

After a meeting--or possibly during the discussion, the next two may be written.

3. The Decision - The recommended action.
4. The solution - An analysis and relationship of the facts, including the who, what, where, when, and why you arrived at a particular decision.

Your position may give you access to much data so that you may not have to interview key/ people in your business or organization to expand your own background knowledge. However, in order to obtain much of your factual information, and to give your case the flavor of an actual human relationship approach, it may be well to include interviews with as many people as you feel can contribute ideas.

There is no one best way of finding leads to the particular problem that is to be written up. Certainly you are faced every day and every year with particular situations, some of which are still unsolved or to some of which you do not feel you have the "best" decision or approach. Unusual situations need not be sought - usually the commonplace is best.

Suggestions for Writing the Case

1. Take the community of interests of the members of your group into consideration--their attitudes, their problems, their morale, and then work backwards to the particular problem facing you.
2. Consider the whole area of work that you are in. Review in your mind its organizational structure, objectives, operational modes, techniques, etc., and where the particular person or work unit is located; attempt to establish and share his viewpoint.
3. Keep in mind that the role of your organization may be changing, but that a particular member or unit within your group may be lethargic or static.
4. Attempt to understand the motives that have contributed to performance and loyalty in your organizational arrangement.

5. Consider the problem that is fundamental in all of your operations, whether it be that of increasing membership, promotional programs, research activities, industrial development, or legislative relationships, etc.

6. Review all lines that have been established in your organizational structure and the methods used in solving prior problems or situations.

7. Keep in mind the appreciation of relationships--human, legal, economic--that exist between your office and the various members.

8. Whenever possible, use definite data.

9. Do not violate regulations or practices that have been developed either through governmental channels or tradition and custom.

Use the past tense; thus you avoid any implication that the facts exist today as they were before. Use of the past tense helps to keep the date disguised.

If you should have any numerical material, present it in tables. You may wish to have appendices, balance sheets, charts, maps, etc. If so, you simply place a footnote at the bottom of your case, indicating the reference to the particular appendix.

It may be well to disguise your figures, location factors, or other data, but disguising should not lead to distortion. Include all relevant facts. When certain facts are not available, it is well to say so. However, many facts that appear to be irrelevant may add to the establishment of an understanding of the atmosphere surrounding the particular situation or problem.

It is not suggested that you write the solution to the case or that you give decisions, but you might include prior decisions made in areas which appear to be similar. If these decisions are to be included, you may state under what circumstances they were made. Brevity may permit superior discussion by reducing the time spent reading the material. Many cases can be written on one single-spaced sheet; others require more.

Sometimes you may wish to attach materials from secondary sources. However, this may be done by referring to it and including such reference material in the appendix.

* * *

Some Useful References About Case Studies:

McNair & Hersum. The Case Method at the Harvard Business School, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lee, Irving J. Customs and Crises in Communication, New York: Harper and Brothers.

Andrews, Kenneth R. The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

7 LISTENING TEAM TECHNIQUE

The listening team technique is used to focus the attention of small groups or teams on a specific question while listening to a presentation. It usually produces lively and enthusiastic audience participation. The technique gives direction to listening, stimulates thinking, and increases the amount and quality of discussion. Members of the team react and discuss phases of the presentation with other team members and arrive at a consensus which is later reported to the entire group.

In an audience of 100 persons or more, two or more teams may be listening and reacting to the speaker's presentation, utilizing the same question. Usually, five or six different questions can be raised that are sufficiently diverse in nature to create genuine interest on the part of the participants.

The speaker should be briefed on the technique and made aware of the discussion pattern. Advanced briefing by the general chairman should alert the speaker that there is no need for a rebuttal to team reactions. After all reports are made by the team chairmen, the speaker may be called upon to clarify items for the group.

HOW IT WORKS

I. Several teams are organized by a designated leader.

   a. Members should get acquainted.
   b. A question is assigned each team.
   c. A chairman should be elected.
   d. A recorder is designated to take notes and report to the audience.

e. Every member should understand the question.

II. The speaker makes a presentation.

a. Members of the teams listen carefully, relating what is said to the question assigned their team.

b. Notes should be taken by team members to assist in discussion following the presentation.

III. The teams listen, discuss, and report.

a. Following the presentation, the teams discuss the presentation.

b. Observations appropriate to the question should be recorded.

c. The recorder reports the reactions of his team to the audience when called upon.

IV. Typical listening team questions:
A question that stimulates thinking and reaction is given each listening team. Some typical questions include the following:

a. Which suggestions presented by the speaker seem most practical for use in your work?

b. How can the ideas or concepts presented by the speaker be put to work by Vocational Educators?

c. What are the major barriers to be overcome before the ideas presented could be used in your program?

d. Which ideas seemed least practical for use in vocational education?

e. What things not said should have been given greater attention by the speaker?

f. What did the speaker say that does not "check" with your experience or your views?

The meeting chairman or designated leader must organize the listening teams before the speaker makes his presentation. This will take 10 or 15 minutes. The teams should be permitted to raise questions about their assignment or the organization prior to the speaker's presentation.

A careful briefing on the part of the chairman should prepare the speaker for the discussion and the reporting that follows his speech. He should recognize the fact that no rebuttal is necessary on his part. Should a clarification

statement on the part of the speaker be requested, he should be encouraged to make some objective observations.*

***U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare**

PERSON - TO - PERSON LISTENING

WHY LISTEN?

You probably have been told again and again that you ought to listen more. However, until you see that there is some real value in such activity, you'll probably continue to act the way you always have. Consequently, let's briefly examine some of the values of good listening.

1. LISTENING CAN REDUCE TENSION...Giving the other person a chance to get his problem or viewpoint off his chest may help to "clear the air" of tension and hostility.

2. YOU CAN LEARN BY LISTENING...You can learn about the subject being discussed, or about the person speaking. What you learn can be increased if you (1) listen past words to meaning; (2) listen for facts behind the words; (3) listen for answers to the questions you ask; (4) listen to the context of what is being said; (5) listen to the person who says it (considering his emotions, intelligence, temperament, skill with words, reaction habits, etc.)

3. LISTENING CAN WIN FRIENDS...The speaker will like you for letting him talk and for listening attentively to him while he does express himself.

4. LISTENING MAY SOLVE THE PROBLEM FOR THE OTHER PERSON...Giving a person a chance to talk through his problem in front of you may (1) clarify his thinking about the subject; and (2) provide necessary emotional release.

5. LISTENING HELPS SOLVE MUTUAL PROBLEMS AND RESOLVE DISAGREEMENTS...
   You can't agree or disagree intelligently with the other person until you understand his point of view. Only when you understand each other, can you cooperatively seek solutions to your problems.

6. LISTENING LEADS TO BETTER WORK AND COOPERATION FROM OTHERS...When a person feels that you are really interested in him and his problems, thoughts, and opinions, he respects both you and the organization you represent. In addition, he is inspired to cooperate with you.

7. LISTENING CAN STIMULATE THE SPEAKER...Eager, alert, active listening helps the speaker do a better job of presenting his ideas.

8. LISTENING HELPS YOU MAKE BETTER DECISIONS...Through listening you can draw upon the experience of people who also work in the same area, thus helping you to develop better judgment as well as to uncover additional facts.

9. LISTENING CAN HELP YOU DO A BETTER JOB...Try asking the people you work with, work for, or work beside for suggestions as to how you can do a better job, and then LISTEN. You may be surprised at the good ideas you can pick up this way.

10. LISTENING CAN HELP YOU SELL...Ask the right questions of people, and then LISTEN. "What advantages can you see in doing the job this way?" "If you were to try to tell a neighbor the best features of this tractor, what would you say?" "What are the best ways we could get such a program started in this area?" Let them tell you and sell themselves on the idea or product at the same time.

11. LISTENING CAN PREVENT TROUBLE...Frequently when we talk before we listen to the other party in a discussion, we stick our necks out, make decisions we later wish we could withdraw, state criticism we later regret, or commit ourselves to action we can't or won't carry out. LISTEN...then speak.

12. LISTENING CAN GIVE YOU CONFIDENCE...If you follow the trend of the discussion, you can be confident that what you say is relevent. If you listen to and understand the opponent's arguments, you can be confident of accurate rebuttal. If you listen, you can spot loop-holes in the other person's argument, and gain confidence in your own case. If you listen you will be confident that your report of the discussion will be more accurate than the report of most others.

13. LISTENING CAN INCREASE ENJOYMENT...Good listening can increase your enjoyment of a play, a movie, a lecture, a television program. In addition, it may help you to develop better standards for all that you hear.

14. LISTENING CAN GIVE YOU TIME TO THINK...The average speaking rate is about 125 words per minute, and your capacity to listen is about 400 to 600 words a minute. Thus, while you are listening, you have about 75 per cent of your time free. You can use this extra time not only to improve your understanding of what is being said, but to think up answers, make decisions, plan actions to be suggested. At times, you might deliberately ask questions to stall for time to think.

8 BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is a technique for stimulating the development of ideas among groups of people---to encourage individual creativity in group situations toward the solution of a given problem. Brainstorming sessions should be governed by the following ground rules which were formulated by Alex Osborn of Batten, Barton, Durstine, and Osborn, Inc., in 1939.

1. Negative criticism is not allowed. Adverse reactions or judgments must be withheld until after the brainstorming session. Thus, if a participant says, "I think the idea is too expensive," or "A competitor tried it in 1942 and failed," or "Nobody will buy it," the chairman rings a bell, and the discussion is redirected in a positive direction.

2. Freewheeling is welcomed. The wilder the ideas, the better. It is easier to tame down than to think up. An excellent idea may be stimulated in the mind of one person by a "screwy" idea previously suggested by somebody else.

3. Quantity is wanted. The greater the number of ideas, the more likelihood of good ones. We have proved time and time again that if you try for quantity you will inevitably get quality. By pushing people to think further on a problem, you encourage them to think higher and wider and deeper. As a result, they come up with ideas they would not otherwise have had.

4. Combination and improvement are sought. Other people's suggestions and refinements result in better ideas. The combination of two or more ideas often results in another, better idea. The implementation of this rule produces more ideas from the group than the same number of people would have had if they had each worked on the same problem for the same length of time at their own desks.

The people who participate in a brainstorming session are not those responsible for the solution of the problem to be considered, though they should be familiar with the nature of the problem. They don't have to worry about the "can'ts" and the "musts"; that's somebody else's job. This enables them to be freewheeling in their thinking.

Participants are informed of the problem two days in advance, so that they can come in with some ideas to start off with. From then on, the chairman drives for quantity. In BBDO, we get an average of 150 to 200 ideas at a noon session; at a coffee-break session, we get between 85 and 120 ideas.*

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*Williard Pleuthner, "Brainstorming on Problems Involving New Products," How to Plan Products That Sell, American Management Association, Report No. 13, 1958, pp. 105-108.

9 RESEARCH PROJECTS - REPORTING

The research project method, sometimes referred to as R and R, is a means by which personal growth is accomplished through individual or group assignments relating to specific questions or topics. The research projects can involve as little as one hour of study or may make use of a large portion of a semester's time. This process can lead to the development of interview techniques, library techniques, and operating processes that will be helpful and useful in developing an individual career in distribution.

Research and reporting techniques are effective in individual development, yet they can foster group cooperation if proper application of reporting is utilized. In its most useful form it aids in the development of ability to evaluate and present information.

The demonstration and reporting section of a research project is a method of presenting the results of the activities in such a way as to bring the rest of the class in on what each student is doing as independent research. Obviously, this is good for the student because it creates an opportunity to make an oral presentation, and it also helps to crystalize the work to the stage of presentation. This usually results in an excellent opportunity for a valuable summarizing experience, and it promotes interest through observation of the activities of the entire class. Demonstrations and oral presentation are conducive to complete application and crystalization of a work project. The demonstrations and dramatizations possible in this type of situation develop poise and self assurance.

2

10

ROLE PLAYING

> All the world's a stage,
> And all the men and women merely players;
> They have their exits and their entrances;
> And one man in his time plays many parts.
>
> William Shakespeare

> A man has as many social selves as there
> are individuals who recognize him and
> carry an image of him in their minds.
>
> William James

Contemporary educational methodologists have accepted role-playing as an important adjunct to the countless other forms of educational devices. Role-playing is a relatively new educational technique, yet it can be especially useful to the instructor of salesmanship, human values, and supervisory techniques and management.

When you conjecture on the above quotations, you will begin to realize that everyone plays many roles in his lifetime. Actually, each of us plays a different role with each person or group with whom we come in contact. A man under different circumstances could be a seller one time and a buyer the next; a boss and a subordinate; a father and a son; an advisor and the seeker of advice. Actually, we are continually involved in role-playing of many different natures. Once this idea becomes a part of student thinking, then role-playing becomes a tool of real educational value.

People must play different roles in their relationships with others. In life we are required many times to change quickly from one role to another.

The purpose of including role-playing in the educational strategy is to try to get the trainee to identify himself with the principles in the case and actually develop empathy and insight which will better enable him to resolve problems and act most favorably in a real situation.

DE instructors have used sales demonstrations for years. This is a traditional and effective form of educational role-playing. Of course, the sales demonstration is usually the result of a practiced development and thus differs from human relations and managerial role-playing in that the latter two forms are most effective if they are spontaneous.

Role-playing is an effective way to develop action and "doing" techniques. It is a way to build a bridge between talk and action. People make a rapid transition from words to deeds as a result of participation in role-playing situations.

Role-playing cases should be taken from realistic and actual possibilities. This leaves the door open for genuine changes in behavioral and human value qualities. An opportunity to develop empathy presents itself whenever the class is role-playing and analyzing a human situation from various points of view.

The role-playing technique is recommended for use after members of a group have a basic idea of how a situation may be handled yet are unsure of themselves in terms of carrying out their part of a response. Dry runs are, in effect, a rehearsal of a situation in the form in which it will, in reality, eventually take place.

Role-playing as a training device helps a person to understand both the other role and his own role as perceived by the person in the other role. The teacher should attempt to create realistic situations. Frequently used are those involving conflicts between people. The end product should be a spontaneous skit of a realistic situation.

"Reality practice"--that's a good description of role-playing. Some term it a substitute for experience. Actually, there are more significant values than this. How else could a person develop a preconstruction, a reconstruction, and an observation of a typical life experience? Discussion and emphasis are all parts of this means of learning--learning by doing in its simplest form--yet with a discerning instructor controlling the process.

It is not possible for the average person to progress readily from principle to practice because he lacks skill. Skill in baseball cannot be acquired by reading an instructional manual on baseball nor by learning its rules and principles. The most logical way to learn how to play baseball, once you have studied it, is to play, watch how others play, and then discuss what you have seen and observed with a competent coach. Personal reactions in the games of life and work can be acquired in the same manner. Role-playing is both the practice and the experience.

In role-playing, one can broaden the span of experience. A student has an opportunity to experiment. He can try two or several approaches in his role-playing. In a real life situation, you only have one chance. By evaluating the different actions and reactions, you can place appropriate values on the effects, strengths, and weaknesses of each approach.

Attitudes toward people are often changed when a person is involved in role-playing. For instance, when an employee assumes the role of the employer in a difficult situation, he is often surprised to learn that he will hold a different viewpoint after this experience.

Role-playing is a painless way of learning. It is a time-consuming process, but if presented correctly, it should result in educational benefits that can be garnered in no other way.

There are some inherent weaknesses in role-playing. It is more difficult to use this method effectively than some of the more common devices. It is a training tool that can easily turn sour if not properly presented. Embarrassment and hesitation to take part are some of the obvious problems to overcome. A tactful initiation of the first presentation is extremely important if this method is to be a success. Some may resent it as a childish approach to serious problems. Most of these difficulties can be resolved by an effective instructor. The disadvantages of role-playing are minor compared to the advantages.

FOR EFFECTIVE PRESENTATION*

The role-playing group consists of two parts--the players and the observers. Each are equally important. A climate of freedom of reaction, self-criticism, and spontaniety must be encouraged. Each person must feel free to talk, to learn, and if this occurs, even to be embarrassed. Freedom to participate is the key. There will, no doubt, be some initial resistance to this kind of education but good cases and good leadership will dispel this.

It is necessary that the leader remain in the background after the situation is presented. He must, however, be on the alert to maintain interest and deal with problems before they become of major significance. He must be careful to guard against excessive rambling and joking. A normal amount of levity increases the interest; however, an excess could put the whole presentation out of business.

Role-playing procedure is important; however, this importance must be kept secondary to the objective. What is the objective? To learn by doing, and to accumulate practice experience in situations similar to ones that we will encounter in the world of business.

A Pattern for Role-Playing

1. Define the problem.
2. Get the group members ready.
3. Describe the situation.

4. Cast the characters.
5. Briefing and warming up.
6. Act out the situation.
7. Stop the performance (when, and if, necessary to put across a point)
8. Analyze and discuss the scene.
9. Evaluate the entire situation and the ways in which it was handled.

The role-playing sequence can be prepared in advance by the instructor. The situation can be typed out on 5 X 7 cards and handed to the role players. An example of two such role-playing sequences are offered below:

ROLE-PLAYING SEQUENCE NO.1

A salesperson is selling a handbag to a customer who is about to purchase it for $10.95, when another customer looking at bags at the same counter says, "Why, they're having a sale on bags just like these at Blank Company for $7.50!" Presumably the first customer heard this remark. The salesperson is beginning to fill out the sales check. How should this situation be handled?

ROLE-PLAYING SEQUENCE NO.2

A customer comes into a radio shop, carrying a small table-model radio. As the salesman approaches him, the customer says, "This radio was in here last week for repair--it doesn't work--and what's more, my neighbor had the same trouble with his radio the other day, and he took it in to Blank Shop and they fixed it up so that it works fine, and they charged him only $1.50---you people charged me $8.50 for the same job and it still doesn't work!" A number of other customers are listening--the man is most irate. How should the salesman handle this situation?

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*How to Teach Business Subjects, California State Dept. of Education, 1963.

11

BUSINESS GAMES

New on the instructional scene and being used more and more frequently are business games. Many national firms of business and industry have turned to business games to acquaint management personnel with decision-making techniques by permitting them to respond competitively in simulated changing business environment. Many of these games are extremely complex, while some are very simple. The most complex games have been designed to utilize computers to analyze the results and reactions of the participants.

The present real problem of distributive educators is that of devising and using business games which are practical, real life situations and yet easy to score. The computer games are fine, but the lack of availability of computer equipment complicates the use of this type of teaching tool. So with this thought in mind, we must look for classroom situations that are closely related to conditions encountered in actual business experience. The real strength in live and growing situations is that previous decisions can set up processes which create a new problem--this goes on and on, and with each move or reaction a new problem is created and a new decision must be made with a resultant fresh problem, and so on.

Competition is a key factor, and the games should include this element if they are to maintain the interest of the class or group participants. One of the strong arguments in favor of business games as we know them is that they

are effective in teaching interrelationships of some of the business variables. For instance, price alone will not make a profit for a business. Concepts like these are easy to develop if the game is composed of elements which will establish these facts. Business games are useful as an aid in teaching DE students the understandings of complex, functional business relationships.

As generally used, business games are decision-making exercises in which students operate hypothetical business units in competition with one another. The participants study the facts, organize for the function to be performed, and then formulate goals and policies. As the game proceeds, the players cope with an unfolding business situation. One of the advantages of the game technique is that a relatively long period of business operation can be simulated in a short period of real time. A few days may be used to cover several years of operation.

Business games are fun for students, and they do enjoy participation in them. Commercially-published games are just beginning to appear on the market; however, the real problem as far as the use of games is concerned is to find the right game for the correct level of the student that can be played in a logical time allotment.

12 CONFERENCE METHOD

A conference is the pooling of thought by two or more individuals to assist in solving problems.* It is an oral interchange of thoughts and reactions.

The chief characteristics of the conference method are:

1. The men making up a group have mutual problems to solve.
2. The group agrees to exchange and pool its experiences.
3. Each member of the group has had some practical experience.
4. The subject is within the experience of the group.
5. The group meets to learn together, not to be instructed.
6. The best results are obtained by groups of twelve to twenty-four.

The advantages are:

1. Appeals to the practical individual.
2. Creates a high degree of interest.
3. Offers full and equal participation for everyone.
4. Provides satisfaction through mutual achievement.
5. Useful when little or no information about a new subject has been organized.
6. Develops group morale.
7. Stimulates habit of analytical thinking.

The conference method, when properly understood and carefully followed, is the most productive of all training methods. It does not deliver information--it produces discussion, ideas, and conclusions, thus drawing out information and helping to organize it.

Rather than being told, the individuals, and the group as well, analyze problems and work out the answers. They all participate.

They talk about things in their own terms and from their own experience. Through their own thinking, they arrive at certain conclusions as a group that will benefit them now and in years to come.

*College of Business Administration, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona.

The conference technique is designed to develop self-confidence, to develop the ability to analyze, to think, and to do, all of which are important management functions.

The Role of the Leader

If the conference leader strives to be a dominant personality, to control the floor, and to impose his thoughts and his prepared material on those present, he may have a well-organized meeting, he may be able to present a lot of material, facts, and information, but he will not have a conference. He will be holding a class of instruction.

So, as a conference leader, submerge yourself. As much as possible, let the men do the talking.

Introduce each subject, and then sit back and let them work out the answers.

Even though you know what the answers should be, or are likely to be, put the burden on your colleagues to come up with these answers. Encourage them to analyze the problem and look for the answers from their own experience.

Think of your role in it as a guide, rather than a leader. Your job is simply to get the ball rolling; to keep it rolling in the right direction, and see that it ends up in the form of logical conclusion.

When the discussion is going well without you, stay out of it. By constantly interrupting and trying to stick too closely to each point, you'll be weakening the basic strength of the conference technique--which is free discussion!

But, after each point has been discussed, a conclusion should be drawn with your help. The group should be able to arrive at a single definition or solution which can be written down as an end result. It's the sum of these which represent the accomplishment of the conference.

Consider yourself as just one of the group. Consider the others as your colleagues. The only difference is that you are privileged to have the leader's book in front of you, that you may help in charting the course and in laying out the problems that are to be solved.

Handling Group Discussion

Once the members of the group get their teeth into a common problem or subject, every one of the group is going to have something to say about it. They'll all have points they want to make, or experiences they want to tell about.

So, let 'em talk. Confine your own comments, if possible, to keeping them to the prescribed order of subject material.

If you clearly define the subject, you'll find that it's fairly easy to keep the conference on the track. They'll go on to the next logical step without much direction.

But when the discussion gets way out in left field and stays there, it's your job to get it back closer to where it belongs. However, it should be done smoothly, and by suggestions, if possible, rather than by taking the floor and dragging it back.

Eliminate Any Grinding of Axes

It's a natural thing that when men who follow similar pursuits or have similar responsibilities within a company gather in a group, they begin a "bull" session. There's a tendency for them to "grind axes," to bring out their pet peeves, and to reorganize management, the Company, and its policies.

This type of discussion is not for your conference. While blowing off steam may sometimes be described as good for morale, its end result is negative. By all means your conference must be positive in its attitude and in its approach. It must at all times be constructive.

This is one place where the conference leader must assert himself and police the conference if need be. He should clear the air at the outset, and say in so many words that this conference has been called to build constructively. Any subject which is not constructive should be taken up after the official conference is over.

If you sell your colleagues sufficiently at the outset on the benefit of each conference and how important it will be to cover as much ground as possible, along the lines of the prepared subjects, you should have no great difficulty in keeping the negative approach completely outside the conference room.

Establish One Point Before You Go On To The Next

In conferences such as these, the proper relation of one idea to another and the orderly succession of facts are of primary importance.

We have tried to keep to such a logical format. However, when a good conference gets rolling, it's not always possible to keep every new topic of conversation within that format. But it is important that you keep as close to it as possible.

Also, where the conference starts with one subject and then, without a logical reason or smooth transition, moves to another, unrelated, subject, everyone in the group is apt to become confused.

Their thinking has followed one line of succession while the conference leader has arbitrarily jumped to another subject. Consequently, the conferees are left fumbling with the relationship between the old idea and the new. You lose them. And when you lose the mental participation of the group you might as well declare a recess.

Therefore, watch your transition of thought. Minds work in an orderly fashion; one idea naturally suggests related ideas. This is good, but watch out for the unrelated idea. There is plenty of material to cover along the lines of your subject and little time to do it in.

If you build properly and bring your group around to single, unified agreement as you go along, you'll keep them with you all the way. The more logical the pattern of discussion, the more easily each conferee will be able to follow it.

Keep To The Conference Format

In your presentation, remember to keep within the realm of the conference members. For instance, under the conference method you would not say: "Today, management experts define leadership within the corporate structure as that vital force which...etc., etc., etc."

Such a statement does not belong in a true conference. It is dogmatic, it is preachy, it is dull. Strictly informative material, like this, should be in literature which the individuals can read later, and it should not be delivered in the form of a lecture.

You'll find that reading material at these conferences should be kept to a bare minimum. You can read it if you want to, but it's far better to know it, and give it in your own words.

For, once you have developed a lively discussion, the reading of even a half page of material can slow it down and weaken the participation.

In the true conference, you bring forth the facts to be examined. You do not say, "This is so." Rather, you say, "Let's see if we can decide what is so."

Remember, if you start lecturing, it leaves you and your group separated. For then you are the instructor with the aces up your sleeve. You have been prepared with the facts. The rest of the group is the audience who have not had an opportunity to see and examine the facts.

When that happens, you've eliminated the chance for full and sincere participation by each member present. It defeats the purpose of a conference.

Conference Opening Is Important

The very beginning of each conference is the most important. A lot depends on the way you handle the opening, for every group will be different, and every

day will be different within the same group.

Search for common understanding. Look for the thought denominator that reaches all members of the group. Establish it well and then go on. If you have a subject that turns out dull, try to analyze _why_ it's dull. Try to put new life into it. See if there is some way you can turn it back to the full interest of the group.

13 VISUAL AIDS

sources & methods

The contemporary educator is fortunate to be able to have available to him volumes and countless sources of audio-visual materials or educational media. These sources have encouraged innovations in teaching techniques, and the professional teacher is quick to involve his students in learning experiences which are meaningful and perhaps a little more exciting, because they are different and facilitate the learning process.

As you plan your projects and classroom work, thoughtfully plan to include the very best media for use in your presentation. Realistically, the whole class does not have to be exposed to everything that every other student gets-----remember, we are trying to develop an individualistic approach to an individual situation.

Each medium has something unique and special to offer in the solution of our educational problems. Be sure to consider all of the following in producing a maximum effort:

Filmstrips
Opaque Projectors
16MM and 8MM Films
35MM Color Slides
Overhead Projectors
Phonograph Records
Tape Recorders
Boards (Flannel, Hook and Loop, Magnetic, etc.)

The teacher must provide opportunities for the student to learn at the fastest rate possible. Not all methods, techniques, and aids are equally effective for every teacher nor for every student, but a variety of techniques and aids add spice to presentations.

Caution should be exercised in selecting films to be sure they are suitable for the purpose intended. Previewing a film is necessary in planning for its best use, and using them only if they fit into the sequence of the learning experience is a very important consideration. Film scheduling has been a real problem in the past, but as more and more materials become available, having the right film at the right time will be easier to accomplish.

GENERAL COMMENTS ABOUT FILMS*

I. Why use films?

- A. Attention is focused on the point being made.
- B. Interest is generated.
- C. Curiosity is aroused.
- D. Understanding of the topic is enhanced.
- E. Retention of message or learning is greater.
- F. Attitude toward learning is more favorable.
- G. Makes learning a pleasant and entertaining experience.
- H. Adds to believability of message.
- I. Induces desirable action.
- J. Presentation is more fun to give.

II. Pre-Planning for Film Use

- A. Schedule ahead to fit the unit.
- B. Preview before showing the film.
- C. Understand how the film fits into your course.
  - 1. Does it introduce a unit?
  - 2. Does it summerize a unit?
  - 3. Does it visualize and expand a particular subject?
  - 4. Does it enrich a subject area?
  - 5. Does it explain a particularly difficult subject?
- D. Whose opinion is being expressed?
  - 1. Who is the educational collaborator of the film?
  - 2. What is the exact title?
  - 3. What company produced the film?
- E. Student Preparation
  - 1. Assign questions to be answered on film content.
  - 2. Give "things to watch for" to stimulate later discussion.
  - 3. Have them take notes (generally there is enough light for this).
  - 4. If a film is dated, tell the class that hair styles will be different, etc. --- the content is the important thing, etc.

*Adapted from Educational Media For Distributive Education, Thomas A. Hephner, Ohio State Dept. of Education, 1967.

F. Mechanics
   1. Films are better shown in your individual classroom.
   2. Set up equipment and be ready to go when the bell rings (we try--this is sometimes a problem).
   3. When the film is over, do not permit rewinding if it interferes with classroom discussion.
   4. Start with the title frame (avoid the 1, 2, 3 countdown).

III. During the Film

A. Watch the first few scenes carefully--they usually provide the key to a better understanding of the film.

B. Watch and listen for teaching points.
   1. A good film is outlined with subpoints.
      a. When the picture fades in and out, this indicates a new point in the film's "outline".
      b. Words printed on the screen usually indicate key ideas.
      c. Dates, maps, animated drawings present important information.
      d. A partial summary indicates a new area is coming up.
      e. The review at the end of a film is quite good and will generally summarize the entire film.
      f. Watch for authentic scenes and objects.
      g. Watch for special film techniques.
      h. If a frame or certain area is of interest, have the projectionist "frame" the picture or stop the action momentarily.
      i. Stop the projector and recap verbally or call emphasis to a certain point--right in the middle of the film!
      j. Stop the sound and let the students narrate the action (this sometimes works better the second time with the students describing the action for the entire film).
      k. Mechanics
         (1) Be sure the sound is adequate for all students.
         (2) Watch focus on the machine.

IV. After the Film

A. Discuss with pointed questions----pick out students who were to watch for certain things.

B. Test them if time permits.

C. Mechanics
   1. Lights on, sound off immediately; get the equipment out of the way or out of the room. Do not share the focal point of your class with a machine once its purpose has been fulfilled.

V. Early Spring (March, April) is the best time to order free loan films for the following school year. Write requests on school stationery.

In ordering films, check carefully to be sure that they are free (meaning you pay only return postage and possibly insurance---both less than $1.00). Check the rules carefully and you will save yourself possible grief.

Don't rule out rental films. These are many times inexpensive ($5 - $7) and well worth it. You may get another teacher or two to split this cost with you or perhaps the Audio-Visual Director has a fund for rental films. Have you checked?

THE 8MM FILM

The 8mm silent film is making a comeback. This has been popular and was forgotten due to the popularity of the 16mm sound film.

Eight millimeter "loop" films are currently gaining momentum as a small group instruction device. The "loop" indicates that the entire film is spliced together and runs continuously until shut off. The advantages of such a film are many. It is economical. The projector is small, portable, and lightweight. Small rear projection screens lend themselves well to showing. It requires little effort to operate, since the film is enclosed in a cartridge. A directory of 8mm loop films is available from Technicolor Corporation, 1985 Placentia Avenue, Costa Mesa, California, 92627. The cost for this directory is $.25. There are no 8mm films currently available for Distributive Education.

FILMSTRIPS

The filmstrip is a 35mm, continuous, black and white or color film shown manually through a filmstrip projector. The film itself does not carry sound but relies on an accompanying record or tape to provide the sound. Filmstrips may have an audible signal in the record to alert the operator to move the filmstrip ahead one frame. This signal is commonly known as a "beep". Normally a filmstrip will have from 25-50 frames and today's are mostly in color. The outright purchase of a filmstrip is likely to be from $5.00-$8.00, hence the attractiveness of low cost.

ADVANTAGES TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER ARE MANY:

1. A wide variety of filmstrips abound in all areas (including Distributive Education).
2. Low cost ($5.00 - $8.00 per copy).
3. They are small and lightweight, and easily stored.
4. Filmstrip projectors are inexpensive and easy to operate.
5. They are run manually and can be viewed at the teacher's own pace. They can be stopped easily for discussion purposes.
6. Filmstrips can quickly be "run" to any area for discussion.

TECHNIQUES FOR FILMSTRIP INSTRUCTION

1. Preview first and jot down some questions to be answered by class members.
2. If the filmstrip has printed captions on the frame, you may want to purposely put it out of frame and ask the class to describe the action.
3. Don't be afraid to stop the filmstrip and develop discussion.
4. Filmstrips lend themselves well to individualized or small group viewing. If you have a large library of filmstrips, you may choose to make your assignments on this basis.

SOURCES FOR FILMSTRIPS

Because of their low cost, filmstrips are generally offered on an outright sale basis or by some industrial sources free. They are not as a rule loaned. Sources for filmstrips are not as easy to find as the more popular 16mm films. Industry (particularly in the area of sales training) has a number of filmstrips applicable to Distributive Education. Some universities and public libraries may have them available for loan. These are quite popular with trade associations and commerce organizations, for it offers them a very inexpensive way to tell their story. Check them out!

35MM SLIDES

Thirty-five millimeter slides are becoming popular, too. The new "foolproof"

35mm cameras are both inexpensive and easy to operate. The availability of commercially prepared slides is poor, particularly in the area of Distributive Education. This is possibly due to the fact that one can prepare his own slide presentation quickly and at much less expense.

ADVANTAGES TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER ARE:

1. If you take your own pictures, you can tailor your presentation to meet local needs.
2. It is inexpensive. Thirty-five millimeter cameras can be purchased for as low as $15. Cost of film and processing for 20 slides is less than $5.
3. Thirty-five millimeter slides are extremely popular for promotional efforts. Slide-tape presentations of students on the job make a nice presentation for Chamber of Commerce, PTA, and other general explanations of the function of a Distributive Education program.
4. Slide projectors are usually readily available in the schools, and many people have a personal slide projector for home use. Many filmstrip projectors are adaptable for showing slides.
5. The advantage of color gives impetus to areas like display, advertising, store layout, etc.
6. Slides can be duplicated or used as media for color prints.

TECHNIQUES FOR SHOWING 35MM SLIDES

1. Try to take all slides horizontally. Vertically composed slides are more apt to flow off the screen.
2. Take each slide as you might paint a picture. Watch composition carefully. Get variety and lots of color in your pictures.
3. Slides can be timed to change automatically on most of the newer projectors. You may want to do this for a continuing presentation in conjunction with a display or exhibit.
4. Always preview your presentation first to be sure your slides are in their proper order, right side up, etc.
5. After your presentation, switch the projector to "fan" to enable the lamp to cool off. This will lengthen the life of the lamp.

PHONOGRAPH RECORDS

The area of records remains one of the simplest and most effective means of motivation. Like the outside speaker, a recorded speech or presentation has "a change" to offer the classroom instructor. Perhaps it is a different approach to the topic. Maybe it is the dynamic, planned approach of the professional specialist in a specific area. Whatever the reason, one should consider closely the records. This is especially true in Distributive Education.

TECHNIQUES

1. Again, preview is important. In Distributive Education there are many fine records available, particularly in the topic area of sales. However, some of these are borderline "adult only" records, and others are geared to "high motivating" approaches and may be wasted on high school audiences. You have to pick and choose that which fits your particular class.
2. After previewing, key the class on what you feel they should gain by hearing the record. Fit the playing of the record into the unit and be certain that the class understands the part that the information plays in the total comprehension of the lesson or unit.
3. Don't be afraid to stop the record at any point to jump into a discussion.
4. Invite students to replay the record for their own individual study.
5. Check to see if the record is part of a filmstrip-record combination. Many of them are, and you could gain the visual impact.
6. If your record library is substantial, individual assignments can be made and reports made on the recorded messages by your students.
7. Average cost of records, $7.00 - $12.00 each.

SOURCES FOR RECORDS

The sources for records are endless. Many of the commercial firms specialize in dramatic readings for English Literature, foreign languages, and similar academic areas that lend themselves well to this medium. However, in Distributive Education many large corporations have records available in quantity for their people as training devices. Because of their low cost they will readily make these available for your class, either as a loan or an outright gift. All you have to do is ask.

TAPE RECORDER

The taped sound recording has somewhat replaced records. Video tape wherein the audio portion and visual image can both be replayed is on its way to stealing the show from the taped sound recording, and so it goes. Taped sound recordings are popular and will remain so because of their low cost, quality of reproduction, longer playing time than records, and less cumbersomeness to store and carry. Recent developments in stereo tape (and tape recorders) have given new emphasis to audio-tape. Mylar tape has given added durability and sound quality to tapes.

TECHNIQUES FOR THE CLASSROOM INSTRUCTOR

1. Imagination plays a large role here. There are few, if any, commercial tapes available for Distributive Education. You must produce your own. Be alert for radio and television programs dealing with areas in marketing and distribution and speeches by leaders in our area. Tape these for classroom use.

2. Taped sales demonstrations and job interviews serve to amplify and illustrate vividly fundamentals studied in the classroom.

3. Outside resource people who are too busy to come into the classroom will many times consent to a taped discussion on a topic area in their place of business. This can be played later to the class.

4. All outside speakers can be taped to form a tape library. (You can then invite different speakers next year instead of having the same ones.) Here it is wise to mention a "cardinal rule" of tape recording. Always secure a speaker's permission to tape record his talk. This is common courtesy and should always be done. In the majority of cases, you will get this permission. However, some people for reasons of their own will not give permission.

5. Put the tape recorder out of sight, if possible, when taping a speaker. Seeing it sometimes makes a speaker nervous and slants a normal presentation. (After you have secured his permission.)

6. The ease of recording and playing back on the same piece of equipment makes this medium very flexible.

7. Keep tape recordings away from motors or other sources of magnetic fields. This is a problem, in that such a situation can be responsible for erasing the entire tape.

Distributive Education students are accustomed to learning by doing. They want to see what you are attempting to explain to them. Admittedly, often this is not possible, but frequently a little imagination and thought on the part of the teacher-coordinator can bring alive an otherwise dull teaching unit.

There are several units in Distributive Education that readily adapt to over-head projection. Cash register orientation becomes exciting as the keyboard chart is vividly focused on the screen. Nomenclature of parts and their locations are clear and easily remembered by each student with an ideal vantage point.

Filling out sales slips with their many variations--where the sales slip form is focused on the screen, and the coordinator with a grease pencil or felt-tip pen fills in each detail as the class watches--is most effective. Even more effective is student participation. Inventory control forms, or any of the various pieces of paperwork required of salespeople in retailing can be quickly and easily explained to a group of students by use of the overhead projector.

Advertising layout and copy is vividly illustrated by use of the "over-head". Rough layouts, hand drawn with a grease pencil, can show a class quickly that an ad is "out of balance" or that an illustration takes up too much space. Student ad layouts drawn in heavy dark pencil lines on paper can be quickly made into transparencies and shown to the entire class for careful evaluation.

Any relationship of a part to the whole can be illustrated vividly on transparency by the use of a pie chart, bar chart, or a similar type of graph. The use of overlays, where the original whole is one transparency, and duplicate transparencies of the parts are made to "lay over" the original, can indicate proportion and relationship of a part to the whole. The use of different colors for the parts will amplify this technique.

Organizational charts, the selling steps, virtually anything that can be illustrated (and most of the areas in Distributive Education can be illustrated) will be enhanced by the use of the overhead projector.

OVERHEAD TRANSPARENCY PRODUCTION

Transparencies range from the everyday reuseable type to the carefully prepared permanent types. Almost any transparent sheet will suffice for use as a reuseable projectual. Acetate or other types of clear plastic are generally used.

Reclaimed "x-ray film" is inexpensive and readily available from several sources for general classroom use. It functions well with several different types of grease pencils, felt-tip markers, or India ink pens. The x-ray film is generally available in either clear transparent or transparent with a blue tint. The tint cuts the glare while the transparency is on the stage and is preferred by some teachers for this reason.

Permanent transparencies can be produced in a variety of different ways. Durability is a consideration. Cost is a factor and certainly time is of essence.

The permanent-type heat process transparency is fast, durable, and relatively inexpensive to produce. This process is a dry process and passes heat through a prepared "master" to a treated commercial transparency. The image on the master absorbs heat, the high temperature affects the film and transfers the image to the film within a few seconds. Simply, a Distributive Education coordinator can sketch roughly (comprehension is important, artwork is secondary) a diagram or illustration on a sheet of common white paper. The paper generally is not critical. However, the ink or drawing medium is critical. It must be of carbon content. Practically all pencils fit this requirement and the darker the better. Some ball-point pens will work, others will not. India ink, of course, is the best medium to use for heat process masters. After the master has been prepared, one need only sandwich it with the treated commercial transparent film and run it through the transparency office machine. The "Thermo-Fax Secretary" was the first machine used and is especially adept in this process, though other comparable pieces of equipment are now available. Normally a school will have access to one of these machines. One now has a standard black image transparency.

Space does not permit a thorough discussion of other techniques or the dozens of variations on the basic approaches. Transparency photocopy, the diazochrome process (ammonia) are areas worth depth discussion. Color processes are coming so fast that one is hard-pressed to keep up with the latest in the field, and "color lifting" is still another unique transparency process quite useful for Distributive Education classrooms.

OPAQUE PROJECTOR

The opaque projector, sometimes confused with the overhead projector, beams a strong light (usually 1,000 watt lamp) off an opaque image onto a screen. This means that any photograph, book, or visual image (of which there is only one copy) can be put under an opaque projector and shown on a screen. The image shown does not have to be transparent (like the overhead projector).

TECHNIQUES AND LIMITATIONS

1. The opaque projector is best utilized when you want to show a picture to the entire class and don't want to take the time to pass it around. The opaque makes it possible for the entire class to view a picture, graph, or drawing at one instant.

2. A small image can be reduced or enlarged by focusing at different distances. Images can then be traced with the opaque projector. This works well in teaching display. Artwork can be quickly prepared for the display by using the opaque projector and tracing the image.

3. Limitations include:
   a. It is a heavy, cumbersome piece of equipment.
   b. You must have complete darkness for maximum results.
   c. It gets hot and will scorch some materials if left in the opaque too long. This is especially true of newsprint.

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